



| | |
|------------------|---|
| Title | Impacts of ethylenediurea (EDU) soil drench and foliar spray in <i>Salix sachalinensis</i> protection against O ₃ -induced injury |
| Author(s) | Agathokleous, Evgenios; Paoletti, Elena; Saitanis, Costas J.; Manning, William J.; Sugai, Tetsuto; Koike, Takayoshi |
| Citation | Science of the total environment, 573, 1053-1062 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.08.183 |
| Issue Date | 2016-12-15 |
| Doc URL | http://hdl.handle.net/2115/72168 |
| Rights | ©2016. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/ |
| Rights(URL) | http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/ |
| Type | article (author version) |
| File Information | Sci. Total Environ.573_1053-1062.pdf |



[Instructions for use](#)

1 **Impacts of ethylene diurea (EDU) soil drench and foliar spray in *Salix sachalinensis***
2 **protection against O₃-induced injury**

3 **Evgenios Agathokleous^{1*}**, Elena Paoletti², Costas J. Saitanis³, William J. Manning⁴, Tetsuto
4 Sugai¹, Takayoshi Koike¹

5 ¹Silviculture and Forest Ecological Studies, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Hokkaido, 060-8589, Japan

6 ²National Council of Research, Via Madonna del Piano 10, Sesto Fiorentino, Florence, 50019, Italy

7 ³Lab of Ecology and Environmental Science, Agricultural University of Athens, Iera Odos 75, Athens, 11855, Greece

8 ⁴Department of Plant, Soil and Insect Sciences, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA, USA

9 *corresponding author: evgenios_ag@hotmail.com or evgenios@for.agr.hokudai.ac.jp

10 **ABSTRACT**

11 It is widely accepted that elevated levels of surface ozone (O₃) negatively affect plants.
12 Ethylenediurea (EDU) is a synthetic substance which effectively protects plants against O₃-
13 caused phytotoxicity. Among other questions, the one still open is: which EDU application
14 method is more appropriate for treating fast-growing tree species. The main aims of this study
15 were: (i) to test if chronic exposure of *Salix sachalinensis* plants to 200-400 mg EDU L⁻¹, the
16 usually applied range for protection against O₃ phytotoxicity, is beneficial to plants; (ii) to
17 evaluate effects of chronic exposure to elevated O₃ on *S. sachalinensis*; (iii) to assess the efficacy
18 of two methods (*i.e.* soil drench and foliar spray) of EDU application to plants; (iv) to investigate
19 the appropriate dose of EDU to protect against elevated O₃-induced damage in *S. sachalinensis*;
20 and (v) to compare the two methods of EDU application in terms of effectiveness and EDU
21 consumption. Current-year cuttings grown in infertile soil free from organic matter were
22 exposed either to low ambient O₃ (AOZ, 10-h \approx 28.3 nmol mol⁻¹) or to elevated O₃ (EOZ, 10-
23 h \approx 65.8 nmol mol⁻¹) levels during daylight hours. Over the growing season, plants were treated

24 every nine days with 200 ml soil drench of 0, 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ or with foliar spray of 0,
25 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ (in two separate experiments). We found that EDU *per se* had no effects
26 on plants exposed to AOZ. EOZ practically significantly injured *S. sachalinensis* plants, and the
27 impact was indifferent between the experiments. EDU did not protect plants against EOZ impact
28 when applied as soil drench but it did protect them when applied as 200-400 mg L⁻¹ foliar spray.
29 We conclude that EDU may be more effective against O₃ phytotoxicity to fast-growing species
30 when applied as a spray than when applied as a drench.

31 **Keywords:** air pollution, antiozonant, effect size, ethylenediurea, tropospheric ozone

32 **Key message:** Soil-drenched EDU was not effective in protecting against O₃ injury to willow, while
33 foliar-sprayed EDU was effective even at the concentration of 200 mg L⁻¹.

34 1. INTRODUCTION

35 Surface ozone (O₃) levels have risen globally, especially in the Northern hemisphere (Young et
36 al. 2013; Akimoto et al. 2015; Saitanis et al. 2015a). This phenomenon is more severe in Asia,
37 due to rapid population growth and industrialization (Ohara et al. 2007; Yamaji et al. 2008;
38 Verstraeten et al. 2015). It is also shown that O₃ levels in European and USA cities and remote
39 sites are still increasing, although peak values are decreasing (Sicard et al. 2013; Paoletti et al.
40 2014).

41 Ozone enters plant tissues via stomata (Hoshika et al. 2015; Watanabe et al. 2015). Uptake of
42 elevated O₃ doses by plants stimulates production of reactive oxygen species (and thus lipid
43 peroxidation), activation of antioxidant mechanisms and other repair processes (Alexou et al.
44 2007; Pellegrini et al. 2015; Vaultier and Jolivet 2015). These negative effects may range from

45 plant cell level to ecosystem level (Agathokleous et al. 2015a, 2016; McGrath et al. 2015; Sicard
46 et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2016).

47 Due to the severity of the problem, countermeasures are required in order to protect plants
48 against O₃ impact, both in rural and urban areas. However, there are hitherto no available
49 countermeasures to protect plants in practice. Several substances have been tested as potential
50 protectants but none has been proved effective enough, except ethylene diurea (C₄H₁₀N₄O₂;
51 abbreviated as EDU (Agathokleous et al. 2015b; Saitanis et al. 2015b). Some studies focused on
52 methods for preventing O₃ uptake into the mesophyll but their efficacy is questioned due to high
53 variability in effectiveness or potential negative feedbacks in the long term by CO₂ deficiency
54 (Francini et al. 2011; Agathokleous et al. 2014; Agathokleous et al. 2016d).

55 EDU is a substance which has been found to protect plants against O₃ impact (Carnahan et al.
56 1978) when appropriately applied in the usual range of doses, e.g. 200-400 mg L⁻¹ (Paoletti et al.
57 2009, Feng et al. 2010). EDU has been studied as a protectant of plants against O₃, as an O₃
58 biomonitoring tool or as a comparative tool for screening other chemicals as to their efficacy to
59 protect plants against O₃ impact (Paoletti et al. 2009; Feng et al. 2010; Manning et al. 2011;
60 Agathokleous et al. 2015b; Singh et al. 2015). EDU has been applied to plenty of agricultural
61 crops. However, it has been applied only to few tree species: *Fagus sylvatica* L., *Fraxinus*
62 *americana* L., *F. excelsior* L. and *F. pennsylvanica* Marshall., *Liriodendron tulipifera* L., *Pinus*
63 *taeda* L., *Prunus serotina* Ehrh, and different poplars (Paoletti et al. 2009; Agathokleous et al.
64 2015d; Xin et al. 2016). This is because such experimentations with trees are more difficult to be
65 conducted (Manning et al. 2011). Notably, only a recent study (Agathokleous et al. 2016b) with
66 the willow *Salix sachalinensis* Fr. Schmidt (syn. *Salix udensis* Trautv. & C.A.Mey.) investigated
67 EDU effects on plants grown in an infertile soil substrate. However, soil infertility, and

68 particularly phosphorus (P) scarcity, is one of the most critical issues nowadays as a large
69 proportion of global soils are P deficient and acidic, phosphate rock reserves are decreasing, and
70 P demands are increasing (von Uexkull and Mutert 1995; Van Vuuren et al. 2010; Cordell and
71 Neset 2014; Ulrich and Frossard 2014). Thus, the effectiveness of EDU against O₃ injury is
72 unknown under such a scenario of soil infertility and when plant demands of nutrients are high.
73 Agathokleous et al. (2016b) investigated the potential toxicity of very high EDU doses, and
74 rather found beneficial effects in willow plants grown in infertile and organic-matter-free soil
75 and exposed to low background O₃ levels. It remains, however, unanswered whether EDU
76 applied at the usual low concentrations (200-400 mg L⁻¹, Feng et al. 2010) has stimulatory
77 effects on plants growing in nutrient-poor and organic-matter-free soil.

78 Willows are the major species for the production of salicin, the predominant pain reliever
79 (Vlachojannis et al. 2009; Mahdi 2010), and are cultivated as short-rotation coppices for biofuel
80 production as well (Karp et al. 2011). *Salix sachalinensis* is a hygrophilous and heliophilous
81 willow, native to Japan, north-east China, North Korea and Russian Far East, which plays an
82 important role in river ecosystem functioning (Tamura and Kudo 2000; Isebrands and
83 Richardson 2014). Its tolerance to shade, drought and waterlogging scores 1, 1.5 and 4,
84 respectively, with 5 being maximal tolerance (Niinemets and Valladares 2006). It can also be
85 grown as ornamental plant, as in the case of the cultivar 'Sekka' (Japanese fantail willow). *Salix*
86 *sachalinensis* is classified as pioneer species which grows fast and continuously (Ueno et al.
87 2006). Since this species is fast growing and grows in wet habitats, a high O₃ uptake through the
88 stomata is expected. However, its response to elevated O₃ levels is unknown, as only one
89 investigation had been previously carried out under low O₃ levels (Agathokleous et al. 2015c,
90 2016a).

91 The two main methods for applying EDU are soil drench and foliar spray (Paoletti et al. 2009;
92 Agathokleous et al. 2015b), although stem injections were tested too (Ainsworth and Ashmore
93 1992; Paoletti et al. 2007). It was suggested that soil influences EDU effectiveness (Manning et
94 al. 2011; Agathokleous et al. 2015b) while foliar applications of EDU are technically difficult in
95 the case of big trees (Paoletti et al. 2010). In the present study, we aimed to assess the
96 effectiveness of these two application methods of EDU, in the common range of 200-400 mg L⁻¹
97 (Feng et al. 2010), to protect against O₃ damage in this fast-growing species.

98 We designed this study to address five principal research questions. The first question (Q1) was
99 “Does EDU applied at low doses affect *S. sachalinensis* plants grown in infertile and organic-
100 matter-free soil under ambient conditions?” Based on estimations of Agathokleous et al. (2016b),
101 we hypothesized that EDU in the usual range of doses would not affect *S. sachalinensis* plants
102 grown in infertile and organic-matter-free soil. The second question (Q2) was “Does elevated O₃
103 alone affect *S. sachalinensis* plants?” In order to investigate EDU soil drench, the third question
104 (Q3) was “Do EDU soil-drench applications at the dosage of 200 ml with the common
105 concentrations of 200-400 mg L⁻¹ every nine days protect against O₃ impact on *S. sachalinensis*
106 plants grown in infertile and organic-matter-free soil?”, where dosage means the rate of
107 application of a dose. Similarly, to investigate EDU foliar spray, the next question (Q4) was “Do
108 EDU spray applications at the common concentration range of 200-400 mg L⁻¹ every nine days
109 protect against O₃ impact on *S. sachalinensis* plants grown in infertile and organic-matter-free
110 soil?” Finally, we aimed to answer the question (Q5) “Which application method is more
111 appropriate for protecting this fast growing species against O₃ phytotoxicity?”. For this purpose,
112 we also recorded the amount of EDU needed for foliar spray applications in order to estimate the
113 consumption of EDU in relation to plant leaf area. This information would be important for

114 designing future experiments. For our questions, we were further interested in estimating the
115 magnitude of the effect in case the alternative hypothesis (H_1) is accepted.

116 In order to answer the above questions, we selected production-related response variables rather
117 than other ones, such as biochemical and physiological variables, because the O_3 impact on
118 biomass production reflects the actual accumulated O_3 damage (Larch 2003; Agathokleous et al.
119 2015b, 2016a) and is used in O_3 risk assessment (U.S. EPA 2014).

120 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

121 **2.1. Study area**

122 A two-year experiment was conducted at Sapporo Experimental Forest of Hokkaido University,
123 Japan (43° .04' N, 141° .20' E, 15 m a.s.l.). The snow-free period lasted from early May to mid-
124 November. Over the experimental period (August-October), data of temperature, wind speed,
125 relative humidity, sunshine and precipitation were recorded by a nearby station at Sapporo
126 (WMO, ID: 47412, 43°03.6'N 141°19.7'E), which is monitored by the Japan Meteorological
127 Agency (2016). In addition, the photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) was recorded by a
128 HOBO Pendant data logger (UA-002-64, Onset Computer, Co., MA, USA) located in the center
129 of each experimental plot at a height of two meters.

130 **2.2. Plant material & experimental design**

131 Willows can be propagated clonally from branch fragments (Newsholme 1992) by rooting
132 cuttings (Hayashi et al. 2005). One hundred fifty current-year cuttings of *S. sachalinensis* with
133 height and basal diameter of 12.09 ± 0.25 (mean \pm s.e.) and 1.90 ± 0.05 cm, respectively, were
134 obtained from the Hokkaido Horti-Tree Planting Center, Co. Ltd; their origin was from the river
135 basin of the Ebetsu city. The cuttings were stored at 0-4 °C, in an incubator, for a month, in order

136 to break the dormancy. Plant growth containers were filled with a mixture (1:1) of Akadama
137 (well-weathered volcanic ash) and Kanuma (well-weathered pumice) soil – free from organic
138 matter. Volcanic ash soils are phosphorus deficient and poor in N, and are commonly found in
139 Hokkaido (Schmincke 2004; Kam et al. 2015). Soils, originated from Kanuma town of Tochigi
140 prefecture, were obtained (DCM Homac CO., LTD., Sapporo, JP) and opened just before the
141 filling of the containers. Cuttings were planted for rooting on May 13th, in both 2014 and 2015,
142 irrigated, and kept under field conditions. Irrigation was repeated two weeks later. On June 9th,
143 when the cuttings were well rooted, 72 of them were selected for uniformity based on total
144 number of leaves per plant (39 ± 2) and transplanted into 15 L pots filled with the same soil
145 mixture, irrigated, and left in the field until establishment and full adaptation. The pH of this pot
146 soil mixture was 5.9 ± 0.01 ; details on sampling and composition of Akadama and Kanuma soils
147 are in Agathokleous et al. (2015e). Irrigation was repeated two times, every seven days. On
148 August 14th, the potted plants were randomly assigned and transferred to six different plots (12
149 pots per plot), of which three served as elevated O₃ and three as ambient O₃ treatment, and,
150 further, four plants were randomly assigned to each of the three EDU treatments in each plot. All
151 the pots within each plot were subjected to a fortnight rotation and the three plots of each O₃
152 treatment were interchanged three times over each growing season, during late evening hours.
153 Irrigation was done using tap water (pH=6.57 \pm 0.04). The plants were not fertilized. Plants were
154 visually checked daily, and when insects were present they were manually removed. Visible
155 injury by pests or pathogens was rarely observed, and thus plants were not treated by
156 agrochemicals during the experiment.

157 In 2014, EDU was applied as soil drench whereas in 2015 it was applied as a foliar spray to
158 different plants of the same age as those used in 2014. In order to achieve comparability, all the

159 plant materials were handled and the treatments were conducted in the same manner and on the
160 same dates each year following exactly the same protocol. The morphological characteristics of
161 this species, when grown from cuttings, can be found in Koike et al. (1995).

162 **2.3. Ozone treatment**

163 For the O₃ treatments, a novel free-air O₃-enrichment system was established in the Sapporo
164 Experimental Forest of Hokkaido University, Japan (Agathokleous et al. 2016e). The O₃
165 treatments were ambient O₃ (AOZ) and elevated O₃ (EOZ). Exposure of plants to EOZ lasted
166 from August 15th to October 26th, in 2014 and 2015, during daytime, when the PPFD exceeded
167 70 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (*i.e.* light compensation point of photosynthesis of targeted plants as determined
168 by Koike, 1988). The PPFD in the experimental plots exceeded 70 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ during the hours
169 07:00 up to 17:00, for both experiments, and was not different between AOZ and EOZ plots (not
170 shown). The AOZ and EOZ 10-h means were 22.3±3.3 and 60.1±2.2 nmol mol⁻¹, respectively, in
171 2014 and 34.3±5.5 and 71.5±1.3 nmol mol⁻¹, respectively, in 2015. Details on the O₃ metrics can
172 be found in Agathokleous et al. (2016e).

173 **2.4. EDU treatment**

174 EDU (100% a.i., N-[-2-(2-oxo-1-imidazolidinyl) ethyl]-N'-phenylurea]; Wat (1975)) was freshly
175 prepared (30 min before application) using an electric hotplate, by dissolving the required EDU
176 amount in 500 mL, so as the target concentration was achieved in the final desired volume,
177 gently-warmed water (Manning et al. 2011) with continuous stirring. For the soil drench
178 treatment (applied in 2014), 200 mL of the prepared volume were given to each plant at each
179 application. For the foliar spray treatment (conducted in 2015), EDU was applied as fine mist
180 with low fluid velocity (*Venturi effect*), until run-off, using an electric sprayer with two nozzles

181 spraying simultaneously. Both abaxial and adaxial leaf surfaces were sprayed. Surfactant was not
182 used for EDU treatments.

183 The first EDU application was carried out on July 29th, 50 days after transplanting, when the
184 plants had 63 ± 2 leaves (measured a day before). Taking into account that EDU may persist in the
185 leaf apoplast for more than eight days (Paoletti et al. 2009), EDU application was repeated every
186 nine days. The last (10th) EDU treatment was applied on October 18th. All the applications were
187 conducted during morning hours (between 10:00 and 11:00).

188 In order to assess the amount of EDU needed for the two application methods, the amount of
189 spray liquid spent for the EDU treatments of 200 mg L^{-1} and 400 mg L^{-1} was recorded; for the
190 soil drench, 200 ml with either 200 or $400 \text{ mg EDU L}^{-1}$ were given to each plant at each
191 application. For the applications of EDU as foliar spray from September to the semi-final in
192 October (pooled over time), 197 ± 3 ml of spray liquid were needed for each plant. The variation
193 among time points was very low as it is evidenced from the low s.e. However, for the semi-final
194 and final applications in October, 206 ± 4 and 88 ± 6 ml, respectively, of spray liquid were needed
195 for each plant. The 88 ml corresponded to 18 ± 1 leaves or a total plant leaf area of 120.5 ± 11.7
196 cm^2 .

197 **2.5. Data collection**

198 Data were collected from all the 144 plants. On October 25th crown length (from the point to
199 which the first shoot is attached on the stem to the highest point of the crown) and crown width
200 (distance between the two farthest shoots, as observed from above) were measured using a
201 measuring tape with 1-mm graduation.

202 Each shoot of each plant was photographed and the angle between the shoot and the stem was
203 taken by using the software ImageJ (U. S. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland,
204 USA; Schneider et al. 2012). Then, the average shoot-stem angle per plant was calculated.

205 On October 26th, the length and width of each leaf, for all the shoots and plants, were measured
206 (cm) non-destructively using a ruler. Later, the area of each leaf y (hereafter leaf size) was
207 calculated using the predicting model $y=0.5786x+1.6913$, where x is the product of leaf length \times
208 leaf width, as described by Agathokleous et al. (2016b). Then the total leaf area for each plant
209 was calculated.

210 On October 27th, the entire root system of each plant was excavated, with no damage or loss due
211 to absence of soil organic matter (SOM), and gently washed with tap water.

212 The basal diameter of each shoot was measured by a caliper (mm), and the average shoot
213 diameter (shoot diameter) was calculated per plant. The length of each shoot was also measured
214 and the average shoot length per plant was calculated.

215 The number of buds of each shoot was counted and the buds of all the shoots were summed up to
216 give the total number of buds per plant.

217 At the end of each experiment, each shoot and each leaf were harvested and put in a separate
218 paper bag with an ID so as to know the position for the leaves on the shoots and the position of
219 the shoots on the stem and thus to group them into lower-level and upper-level compartments.
220 Roots were also put into separate bags with an ID informing about the plant to which they
221 belonged.

222 All plant compartments were air-dried until constant dry mass in an oven at constant air
223 temperature of 65 °C. The dry mass (DM) of each leaf, shoot, root and stem was measured by an
224 electronic balance (g), and the average leaf DM (leaf DM), average shoot DM (shoot DM), total
225 foliage DM (foliage DM), mean shoot DM and total shoot DM (shoots DM) and the Root
226 DM/Foliage DM ratio were calculated per plant. The sum of Foliage DM and Shoots DM
227 constituted the aboveground plant dry mass (Aboveground DM) and the sum of Foliage DM,
228 Shoots DM and Root DM constituted the total plant dry mass (Plant DM).

229 **2.6. Data handling & Statistics**

230 Each comparison of interest derived from a particular hypothesis, requiring thus straightforward
231 interpretation. Yet, the total number of possible pair-wise comparisons was quite huge (high
232 number of independent variables with at least two levels each), the majority of which was
233 meaningless, increasing thus the experimental error and further making the *a posteriori*
234 comparisons inappropriate. Thus, based on prior theoretical knowledge and in order to answer
235 only the most biologically meaningful questions (Ruxton and Beauchamp 2008) the approach of
236 contrasts was chosen and applied to *a priori* planned comparisons which offer a better trade-off
237 between type I and type II errors than unplanned comparisons.

238 For more conservative conclusions, regarding the experimentwise type I error rate (EER)
239 (Ruxton and Beauchamp 2008), all the statistical comparisons were conducted at level of
240 significance lower than 0.05, calculated according to the Dunn–Šidák correction equation:

$$241 \quad a_{[PC]} = 1 - (1 - a_{[PF]})^{1/C} = 0.0085,$$

242 where $\alpha_{[PC]}$ is the Type I error for the group of contrasts, $\alpha_{[PF]}$ the Type I error per contrast and
 243 C the sum of contrasts. Such a correction is particularly important with respect to orthogonality
 244 regarding the independence of the contrasts (Ruxton and Beauchamp 2008).

245 To answer the research questions (Q1-Q4b), 6 of the 11 degrees of freedom were partitioned to
 246 the following straightforward comparisons where $Q_x =$ component A vs. component B (*
 247 indicates interaction). Each predefined question was tested by the contrasts shown in the below
 248 corresponding simple contrast (Q3b, Q4b) or complex contrast (Q1, Q2, Q3a, Q4a) null
 249 hypothesis (H_0). The standard form of each population contrast is indicated by the equation
 250 gamma (γ), where μ indicates each mean. It should be noted that preliminary analysis of the data
 251 (Q1) confirmed that EDU by itself had no effects on AOZ plants, as expected based on prior
 252 suggestions (Manning et al. 2011; Agathokleous et al. 2015b). Thus, to make more robust
 253 estimates of Q2, the EDU200*AOZ and EDU400*AOZ treatments were considered EDU0*AOZ.
 254 Questions 3 and 4 were partitioned into two questions each.

255 Q1: Is the mean of plants treated with 200 or 400 mg EDU L^{-1} different from those treated with 0 mg EDU L^{-1}
 256 in AOZ?

257 H_0 : Mean (EDU0_{DRENCH}*AOZ + EDU0_{SPRAY}*AOZ) = Mean (EDU200_{DRENCH}*AOZ +
 258 EDU400_{DRENCH}*AOZ + EDU200_{SPRAY}*AOZ + EDU400_{SPRAY}*AOZ), that is

259 $\gamma_1 = (1/2)\mu_1 + (1/2)\mu_2 + (-1/4)\mu_3 + (-1/4)\mu_4 + (-1/4)\mu_5 + (-1/4)\mu_6$

260 Q2: Is the mean of EOZ plants different from the mean of AOZ plants?

261 H_0 : Mean (EDU0_{DRENCH}*EOZ + EDU0_{SPRAY}*EOZ) = Mean (EDU0_{DRENCH}*AOZ +
 262 EDU200_{DRENCH}*AOZ + EDU400_{DRENCH}*AOZ + EDU0_{SPRAY}*AOZ + EDU200_{SPRAY}*AOZ +
 263 EDU400_{SPRAY}*AOZ), that is

264 $\gamma_2 = (1/2)\mu_1 + (1/2)\mu_2 + (-1/6)\mu_3 + (-1/6)\mu_4 + (-1/6)\mu_5 + (-1/6)\mu_6 + (-1/6)\mu_7 + (-1/6)\mu_8$

265 Q3a: Is the mean of plants treated with 200 ml soil drench of 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ comparable to those
266 treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ?

267 H₀: Mean (EDU200_{DRENCH}*EOZ + EDU400_{DRENCH}*EOZ) = Mean (EDU0_{DRENCH}*EOZ), that is

268
$$\gamma_{3a}=(1/2)\mu_1+(1/2)\mu_2+(-1)\mu_3$$

269 Q3b: Is the mean of plants treated with 200 ml soil drench of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ comparable to those treated
270 with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ?

271 H₀: Mean (EDU400_{DRENCH}*EOZ) = Mean (EDU200_{DRENCH}*EOZ), that is

272
$$\gamma_{3b}=(1)\mu_1+(-1)\mu_2$$

273 Q4a: Is the mean of plants treated with foliar spray of 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ comparable to those treated
274 with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ?

275 H₀: Mean (EDU200_{SPRAY}*EOZ + EDU400_{SPRAY}*EOZ) = Mean (EDU0_{SPRAY}*EOZ), that is

276
$$\gamma_{4a}=(1/2)\mu_1+(1/2)\mu_2+(-1)\mu_3$$

277 Q4b: Is the mean of plants treated with 200 ml soil drench of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ comparable to those treated
278 with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ?

279 H₀: Mean (EDU400_{SPRAY}*EOZ) = Mean (EDU200_{SPRAY}*EOZ), that is

280
$$\gamma_{3b}=(1)\mu_1+(-1)\mu_2$$

281 According to homoscedasticity (Levene's test), in 7.4% of the cases the H₀ was rejected and
282 therefore the *P* values were calculated with correction assuming unequal variance.

283 Since the prior results (Q3a-Q4b) showed no protection of EDU soil drench, it would be
284 meaningless to further test statistically the difference between the two application methods.
285 Hence, Q5 was excluded from further statistical hypothesis testing.

286 To quantify the effect magnitude for Q2 and Q4a (plant DM) and of EOZ for each of the 18 plant
287 response variables for each experiment (EDU0*EOZ vs. (EDU0*AOZ + EDU200*AOZ +
288 EDU400*AOZ)), the unbiased Cohen δ was estimated (Hedges and Olkin 1985; as described in

289 Agathokleous et al. 2016d). The effect magnitude was arbitrarily classified as neutral (δ =[0.00,
290 0.50)), small (δ = [0.50, 1.50)), moderate (δ = [1.50-3.00)) or large (δ =3.00+) (Cohen 1988;
291 Agathokleous et al., 2016b). Absolute δ values in the interval [0.50-1.50] indicate educational
292 significance while δ values >1.50 indicate practical significance (Wolf 1986; Agathokleous et al.
293 2016b).

294 Data management and statistical analyses were performed with MS EXCEL 2010 (© Microsoft)
295 and PASW Statistics 18 (formerly SPSS Statistics, IBM ©) software.

296 3. RESULTS

297 With regard to the *a priori* comparisons set as Q1 to Q4b, the orthogonal contrast test returned
298 the following results:

299 Q1 tested if EDU affected the plants in the absence of O₃ exposure (AOZ). H₀ was accepted
300 (α =0.0085) for all response variables in this species (Table 1, Fig 1-3) suggesting that EDU by
301 itself did not affect *S. sachalinensis* plants when grown in infertile and organic-matter-free soil
302 under ambient conditions. There was only a trend (P <0.05) towards increased shoot DM and
303 lower number of shoots (Table 1, Fig 2).

304 Q2 tested if EOZ alone affected the plants in the absence of EDU exposure (0 mg EDU L⁻¹). H₀
305 was rejected (α =0.0085) for all leaf traits variables (Table 1, Fig 1), crown width, shoots DM
306 (total DM of shoots per plant), foliage DM, aboveground DM and plant DM (Table 1, Fig 3),
307 suggesting a significant effect of EOZ on *S. sachalinensis* plants grown in infertile and organic-
308 matter-free soil. EOZ did not affect the shoot traits (Table 1, Fig 2). EOZ led to decreased
309 number of leaves, average leaf size, average leaf DM, plant leaf area, crown width and foliage
310 DM (Table 1, Fig 1-3). It further led to reduced DM of shoot and aboveground DM. There was a

311 trend for root DM reduction ($P<0.05$) by EOZ as well. As a result, there was a small effect of
312 EOZ on plant DM ($\delta = -1.43$, CI [-3.15, -0.28]); however, the biomasses of aboveground and
313 belowground parts were equally suppressed by EOZ as indicated by the shoot:root ratio
314 (S/R=1.18±0.16 for AOZ and 1.23±0.07 for EOZ). The effect magnitude of EOZ on plant DM
315 was close to moderate and very close to the conservative margin for practical significance. Still,
316 δ of the 18 plant response variables was -1.63±0.36 in 2014 and -1.39±0.35 in 2015, showing no
317 difference in the effect magnitude of EOZ. The average δ of the two experiments across all the
318 18 plant response variables was -1.51, indicating an overall moderate effect of EOZ on plants
319 which is of practical significance.

320 Q3a tested if EOZ plants treated with soil drench of 200 and 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ had similar
321 performance with those treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹. H_0 was rejected ($\alpha=0.0085$) only for number
322 of leaves (Table 1, Fig 1), evidencing that, for all the other response variables, the means of
323 plants treated with 200 ml soil drench of 200 and 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ were comparable to those
324 treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ. Thus, there was a trend for lower foliage DM ($P<0.05$) and
325 plant leaf area ($P=0.058$) in plants treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those treated with 200 or 400
326 mg EDU L⁻¹ (Table 1, Fig 1).

327 Q3b tested if the performance of EOZ plants treated with soil drench of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹
328 differed from that of EOZ plants treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹. H_0 was accepted ($\alpha=0.0085$) for
329 all plant response variables (Table 1, Fig 1-3), evidencing that the means of plants treated with
330 200 ml soil drench of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ were comparable to those treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹
331 in EOZ. However, there was a trend for increased ($P<0.05$, Table 1) number of shoots (Fig 2)
332 and crown width (Fig 3) in plants treated with 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those treated with 200 mg

333 EDU L⁻¹. In addition, there was an insignificant decrease ($P=0.066$) in shoot diameter (Table 1,
334 Fig 2) in plants treated with 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹.

335 Q4a tested if EOZ plants treated with foliar spray of 200 and 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ had similar
336 performance with those treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹. H_0 was rejected ($\alpha=0.0085$, Table 1) for
337 number of leaves, plant leaf area, average leaf DM (Fig 1) and root DM (Fig 3). Furthermore,
338 average leaf size (Fig 1) and DM of foliage and plant (Fig 3) showed a trend for higher ($P<0.05$,
339 Table 1) means of plants treated with foliar spray of 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those treated
340 with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ. Yet, there was an insignificantly higher crown width (16%, Fig 3),
341 shoots DM (16%, Fig 3) and aboveground DM (18%, Fig 3) of EOZ plants treated with 200 or
342 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ (Table 1). H_0 was accepted ($\alpha=0.0085$)
343 for all the response variables of shoot traits (Table 1, Fig 2). The effect magnitude of EDU on
344 plant DM was close to moderate ($\delta = 1.41$, CI [0.45, 2.59]) and very close to the conservative
345 margin for practical significance.

346 Q4b tested if the performance of EOZ plants treated with foliar spray of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹
347 differed from that of EOZ plants treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹. H_0 was accepted ($\alpha=0.0085$) for
348 all the plant response variables (Table 1, Fig 1-3), with the means being similar between the
349 components, proving that the means of plants treated with foliar spray of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ were
350 indifferent from those treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ. Only a trend was observed towards
351 lower shoot-stem angle (Table 1, Fig 2) of EOZ plants treated with 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those
352 treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹, which, however, was insignificant ($P>0.05$). Except the shoot-
353 stem angle, there was no difference between plants treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹ and those
354 treated with 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ.

355 As to the meteorological conditions, average air temperature and maximum air temperature were
356 0.1 and 0.3 °C higher in 2014 than in 2015 while minimum air temperature was 0.3 °C lower in
357 2014 than in 2015 (Table 2). Wind speed was 0.1 m s⁻¹ lower in 2014 compared to 2015 and
358 relative humidity was indifferent between years. Sunshine duration was 17.2 h longer and
359 precipitation 20 mm higher in 2014 than in 2015. Moreover, the average daily PPFD, as
360 measured within the experimental plots, was 161.7 ±6.8 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (n=6) in 2014 and 141.6
361 ±13.9 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (n=6) in 2015. These variations in meteorological conditions were not
362 biologically significant (both for O₃ and EDU effects) as the effect magnitude of EOZ was
363 indifferent between 2014 and 2015. In addition, these variations were insignificant for
364 comparison between the two EDU application methods due to the binomial effect of the methods
365 ("failure" of soil drench and "success" for foliar spray).

366 4. DISCUSSION

367 At low ambient O₃ levels which are not expected to impact plants (AOZ), the present findings
368 confirm suggestions made by Manning et al. (2011) and Agathokleous et al. (2015b) for absence
369 of EDU-induced side effects on plants when EDU is applied in the appropriate range of doses
370 (Q1). Regarding the trend of EDU-treated plants in AOZ towards increased shoot DM (DM per
371 shoot) and decreased number of shoots, *i.e.* more biomass to be allocated to fewer shoots, it
372 should be taken into account that shoots were formed before the exposure to the treatments. Thus,
373 these observations are likely due to pre-treatment differences since plants were allocated to the
374 treatments based on number of leaves. Further, our findings support recent evidence on the
375 absence of EDU side effects in the range of 150-300 mg L⁻¹ when hydrophyte communities
376 (*Lemna minor* L.) were treated with EDU in an O₃-free atmosphere (Agathokleous et al. 2016c).

377 EOZ impacted all leaf traits (Q2) that are common targets of O₃ phytotoxicity (Agathokleous et
378 al. 2016a). *Salix sachalinensis* unfolds and sheds leaves over a long time during the growing
379 season (Ueno et al. 2006). In our experiments, self-shedding of leaves started early in the
380 growing season. At the final harvest, the AOZ-treated plants had approximately three times
381 lower number of leaves than that at the beginning of EDU treatments because new leaves were
382 no longer produced at the end of the season (i.e. preparation for over wintering). EOZ-treated
383 plants, however, had a lower number of leaves than AOZ-treated plants. Ozone-induced
384 accelerated leaf senescence is a phenomenon which has been often observed and is considered a
385 characteristic symptom of O₃-caused phytotoxicity (Iriti and Faoro 2008; Paoletti et al. 2009;
386 Agathokleous et al. 2015a). The lower average leaf size and DM suggests that each leaf of EOZ-
387 exposed plants had less photosynthetic area than each leaf of AOZ-exposed plants. Unaffected
388 S/R allometry is in agreement with 68% out of 104 reviewed cases of trees where there was no
389 significant EOZ-induced change in S/R and in disagreement with 5% of cases where S/R was
390 significantly reduced and 27% where S/R was significantly increased (Agathokleous et al.
391 2016a). No effect of EOZ on shoot traits was due to the fact that the shoots were well-developed
392 before the treatments started.

393 EDU did not protect against EOZ-induced injury to this species when applied as soil drench,
394 either at 200 or at 400 mg L⁻¹ (Q3a and Q3b). EDU protected only against EOZ-induced
395 accelerated senescence, as it is indicated by a higher number and DM of leaves and by an
396 insignificant trend towards higher plant leaf area in plants treated with 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹
397 than those treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹. The impact of EOZ on leaf size and DM, root DM, shoots
398 DM, aboveground DM and plant DM was similar in plants treated with 0 or 200 or 400 mg EDU
399 L⁻¹. Less sink of photosynthetic products, indicated by lower average leaf size or DM, led to

400 reduced biomass production. The only differences between plants treated with 400 mg EDU L⁻¹
401 and those treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹ were increased number of shoots ($P<0.007$) and crown
402 width ($P<0.050$) in plants treated with 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹,
403 which should be attributed to pretreatment differences as explained above.

404 In contrast to previous experiments where tree plants were treated with EDU soil drench (Paoletti
405 et al. 2010, 2011; Hoshika et al. 2013; Carriero et al. 2015), this experiment was conducted with
406 current-year cuttings grown in infertile soil. The plant leaf area of these fast-growing plants was
407 higher early in the treatments than it was at harvest when the autumn senescence was at the final
408 stages, as it is indicated by the 63 leaves at first EDU application and the higher amount of EDU
409 needed for the spray treatments in the second experiment. We thus postulate that EDU as a soil
410 drench was not enough for the high plant leaf area early in the treatments.

411 As observed for EDU applied as soil drench, EDU protected against EOZ-induced accelerated
412 senescence in this species when applied as foliar spray at 200 and 400 mg L⁻¹ (Q4a and Q4b), as
413 indicated by number of leaves, plant leaf area and foliage DM. A loss of leaves was more
414 obvious around the middle of October, when the air temperature dropped suddenly to very low
415 levels. This observation is supported by the more than two times higher amount of EDU needed
416 to spray the plants at the semi-final EDU treatment, compared to the final one. The harvest was
417 done at the end of the growing season when plants stopped producing new leaves and, therefore,
418 cannot be proved if plants treated with spray of 200 and 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ compensated the
419 accelerated leaf senescence by producing more leaves during the growing season (Kolb and
420 Matyssek 2001). The reviews by Paoletti et al. (2009) and Singh et al. (2015) suggested that
421 EDU delays the O₃-induced accelerated senescence and this coincides with the findings of the
422 present study. However, the fact that EDU soil drench protected against EOZ-induced

423 accelerated senescence while did not protect against EOZ damage to all the other response
424 variables (which are not related to the leaf number) indicates that either the EDU mode of action
425 in protecting against O₃ injury is not upon protecting against O₃-accelerated senescence –which
426 is in agreement with suggestions by Eckardt and Pell (1996)- or EDU protection against EOZ
427 injury was not complete – as reported also by Paoletti et al. (2007). The higher biomass
428 production of plants treated with foliar spray of 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ than those treated with 0
429 mg EDU L⁻¹ and the indifferent biomass production of plants treated with foliar spray of 200 mg
430 EDU L⁻¹ and those treated with 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ, suggest that EDU can reduce O₃-
431 induced damage to plants of this species in the range of EDU doses 200-400 mg L⁻¹.

432 In our case, the amount of EDU was the same when applied as spray and as soil drench and this
433 evidences that no more EDU is needed when applied as foliar spray to current-year plants of fast
434 growing species grown under conditions like those in our experiment (Q5). When the plant leaf
435 area was relatively low, *i.e.* at the final EDU application, the amount of EDU needed for foliar
436 spray was 2.3 times lower than that needed for soil drench, showing that EDU foliar spray is
437 more appropriate –in terms of financial cost- than EDU soil drench for plants with small leaf area.

438 5. CONCLUSIONS

439 We conclude that EDU *per se*, at the studied dosages and doses, did not affect *S. sachalinensis*
440 plants grown in infertile and organic-matter-free soil, while exposure to EOZ did cause an
441 overall moderate negative effect which is of practical significance.

442 Ten EDU soil-drench applications at a dosage of 200 ml with 200 or 400 mg L⁻¹ every nine days,
443 apart from delaying O₃-induced accelerated senescence, did not protect this species against EOZ
444 impact. On the other hand, ten EDU spray applications at a dosage of 200 or 400 mg L⁻¹ every

445 nine days protected this species against EOZ impact. Thus, foliar applications in the range of
446 concentrations 200-400 mg EDU L⁻¹ at the used dosage can be used for biomonitoring purposes
447 with efficient protection against EOZ-caused phytotoxicity and without effects on plants of this
448 fast-growing species.

449 *Salix sachalinensis*, in contrast to previous EDU literature, can be found both in remote (e.g.
450 forests, across rivers etc.) and urban areas. Thus, it can be effectively used as an ecological
451 indicator for O₃ biomonitoring purposes and O₃ risk assessment in Japan, north-east China,
452 North Korea and Russian Far East. We present all the necessary information for such use, from
453 EDU application method to EDU doses.

454 When EDU is used as a research tool, it is recommended to be applied as foliar spray instead of
455 soil drench to plants of small size (small plant leaf area as in our case at the final application) for
456 economy and for minimizing the error that could be caused due to the influence of soil since
457 EDU should cycle from soil up to the leaves. However, for adult trees of larger size and with
458 more foliage while more EDU is expected to be needed when applied both as foliar spray and
459 soil drench (Paoletti et al. 2011), much more time would be needed for foliar spray application
460 and it could be practically prohibitive to tall trees, unless motorized vehicles are available, which
461 increases the financial cost in turn.

462 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

463 The authors acknowledge Mr. Tatsushiro Ueda of Dalton Co. (Hokkaido Branch) for his
464 continuous engineering assistance in the free-air O₃-enrichment system. The senior author (E.A.)
465 is indebted to Ms. Yuika Sugawara for making the drawing of the graphical abstract. An
466 exhibition to a part of the present experiment was offered by E.A. to (not a particular order): (a)

467 Prof. Zhaozhong Feng and Dr. Jingsong Sun, Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences,
468 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, P.R.China; (b) Dr. Haoye Tang, Institute of Soil Science,
469 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Nanjing, P.R.China; (d) Prof. Kazuhiko Kobayashi, The
470 University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan; and (e) Prof. Heljä-Sisko Helmisaari, University of Helsinki,
471 Helsinki, Finland. E.A. acknowledges their comments and suggestions. The British Ecological
472 Society is acknowledged for awarding a Training & Travel Grant (reference No: TT16/1013) to
473 E.A. in order to present this study at the second meeting of the Committee on Air Pollution
474 Effects Research on Mediterranean Ecosystems (CAPERmed) entitled "(E)merging directions on
475 air pollution and climate change research in the Mediterranean ecosystems" which was held from
476 28 to 30 June, 2016, at Brescia, Italy. Part of the findings was also presented at the 27th
477 international biennial conference of the International Union of Forest Research Organizations
478 (IUFRO) Research Group 7.01 "Impacts of Air Pollution and Climate Change on Forest
479 Ecosystems" entitled "Global Challenges of Air Pollution and Climate Change to Forests",
480 which was held from 2 to 5 of June, 2015, at Nice, France. The attendance and presentation to
481 this conference was financially supported through the Award of Sapporo Agriculture Alumni
482 which was awarded by the School of Agriculture, Hokkaido University, Japan, via the Japanese
483 Society of Soil Science and Plant Nutrition, to E.A. Yet, a presentation was given at the 63th
484 Annual meeting of Boreal Forest Research of Japan, on 12 November 2014, at Sapporo, Japan
485 (see the proceedings Agathokleous et al. 2015e). E.A. is thankful to the Japanese Ministry of
486 Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology and the Japan Society for the Promotion of
487 Science (JSPS) for funding (scholarship no: 140539).

488 **Funding:** This study was financially supported by JSPS (Type B: 26292075, to T.K.). JSPS had
489 no involvement in study design; in the collection, analysis and interpretation of data; in the
490 writing of the article; and in the decision to submit the article for publication.

491 **CITED LITERATURE**

492 Agathokleous, E., Saitanis, C.J., Papatheohari, Y. (2014). Evaluation of di-1-*p*-menthene as
493 antiozonant on Bel-W3 tobacco plants, as compared with ethylenediurea. *Wat. Air Soil Pollut.*
494 225: 2139.

495 Agathokleous E., Saitanis C.J., Koike T. (2015a). Tropospheric O₃, the nightmare of wild plants:
496 A review study. *J. Agr. Meteorol.* 71: 142-152.

497 Agathokleous E., Koike T., Watanabe M., Hoshika Y., Saitanis C.J. (2015b). Ethylene-di-urea
498 (EDU), an effective phytoprotectant against O₃ deleterious effects and a valuable research tool. *J.*
499 *Agr. Meteorol.* 71: 185-195.

500 Agathokleous E., Saitanis C.J., Satoh F., Koike T. (2015c). Wild plant species as subjects in O₃
501 research. *Euras. J. For. Res.* 18: 1-36.

502 Agathokleous E., Koike T., Saitanis C.J., Watanabe M., Satoh F., Hoshika, Y. (2015d).
503 Ethylenediurea (EDU) as a protectant of plants against O₃. *Euras. J. For. Res* 18: 37-50.

504 Agathokleous E., Paoletti E., Manning W.J., Satoh F., Koike T. (2015e). Ethylenediurea (EDU)
505 as a soil drench to reduce O₃ impact on willow (*Salix sachalinensis*) cuttings: A preliminary
506 observation using a free-air O₃ fumigation system. *Boreal For. Res.* 63: 43-45.

507 Agathokleous E., Saitanis C.J., Wang X., Watanabe M., Koike T. (2016a). A review study on
508 past 40 years of research on effects of tropospheric O₃ on belowground structure, functioning
509 and processes of trees: a linkage with potential ecological implications. *Wat. Air Soil Poll.* 227:
510 33.

511 Agathokleous E., Paoletti E., Saitanis C.J., Manning W.J., Shi C., Koike T. (2016b). High doses
512 of ethylene diurea (EDU) are not toxic to willow and act as nitrogen fertilizer. *Sci. Total Environ.*
513 566-567: 841-850.

514 Agathokleous E., Mouzaki-Paxinou A.-C., Saitanis C.J., Paoletti E., Manning W.J. (2016c). The
515 first toxicological study of the antiozonant and research tool ethylene diurea (EDU) using a
516 *Lemna minor* L. bioassay: Hints to its mode of action. *Environ. Pollut.* 213: 996-1006.

517 Agathokleous E., Saitanis C.J., Stamatelopoulos D., Mouzaki-Paxinou A.C., Paoletti E.,
518 Manning W.J., (2016d). Olive oil for dressing plant leaves so as to avoid O₃ injury. *Wat. Air Soil*
519 *Poll.* 227: 282.

520 Agathokleous, E., Takagi, K., Sugai, T., Satoh, F., Koike, T. (2016e). A novel system for
521 exposing communities of deciduous plant species to free-air ozone-controlled exposure (FACE)
522 in northeast Asia. *Wat. Air Soil Poll.* Submitted

523 Ainsworth, N., Ashmore, M.R. (1992). Assessment of ozone effects on beech (*Fagus sylvatica*)
524 by injection of a protectant chemical. *For. Ecol. Manage.* 51: 129-136.

525 Akimoto H., Mori Y., Sasaki K., Nakanishi H., Ohizumi T., Itano Y. (2015). Analysis of
526 monitoring data of ground-level ozone in Japan for longterm trend during 1990-2010: Causes of
527 temporal and spatial variation. *Atmos. Environ.* 102: 302-310.

528 Alexou M., Hofer N., Liu X., Rennenberg H., Haberer K., (2007). Significance of ozone
529 exposure for inter-annual differences in primary metabolites of old-growth beech (*Fagus*
530 *sylvatica* L.) and Norway spruce (*Picea abies* L.) trees in a mixed forest stand. *Plant Biol.* 9:
531 227-241.

532 Carnahan J.E., Jenner E.L., Wat E.K.W. (1978). Prevention of ozone injury to plants by a new
533 protectant chemical. *Phytopathology* 68: 1225-1229.

534 Carriero G., Emiliani G., Giovannelli A., Hoshika Y., Manning W.J., Traversi M.L., Paoletti E.
535 (2015). Effects of long-term ambient ozone exposure on biomass and wood traits in poplar
536 treated with ethylenediurea (EDU). *Environ. Pollut.* 206: 575-581.

537 Cohen J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences, 2nd edn.* Lawrence
538 Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey, p 590

539 Cordell D., Neset T.-S.S. (2014). Phosphorus vulnerability: a qualitative framework for assessing
540 the vulnerability of national and regional food systems to the multidimensional stressors of
541 phosphorus scarcity. *Global Environ. Chang.* 24: 108–122.

542 Eckardt N.A., Pell, E.J. (1996). Effects of ethylenediurea (EDU) on ozone-induced acceleration
543 of foliar senescence in potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). *Environ. Pollut.* 92-3: 299-306.

544 Feng Z., Wang S., Szantoi Z., Chen S., Wang X. (2010). Protection of plants from ambient ozone
545 by applications of ethylenediurea (EDU): A meta-analytic review. *Environ. Pollut.* 158: 3236–
546 3242.

547 Francini, A., Lorenzini, G., Nali, C. (2011). The antitranspirant Di-1-p-menthene, a potential
548 chemical protectant of ozone damage to plants. *Wat. Air Soil Pollut.* 219: 459-472.

549 Hayashi T., Tahara S., Ohgushi T. (2005). Genetically-controlled leaf traits in two chemotypes
550 of *Salix sachalinensis* Fr. Schm (Salicaceae). *Biochemical Systematics and Ecology* 33: 27–38.

551 Hedges L.V., Olkin I. (1985). *Statistical methods for meta-analysis*, 1st edn. Academic Press,
552 Orlando, FL. 369pp.

553 Hoshika Y., Pecori F., Conese I., Bardelli T., Marchi E., Manning W.J., Badea O., Paoletti E.
554 (2013). Effects of a three-year exposure to ambient ozone on biomass allocation in poplar using
555 ethylenediurea. *Environ. Pollut.* 180: 299-303.

556 Hoshika Y., Watanabe M., Inada N., Koike T. (2015). Effects of ozone-induced stomatal closure
557 on ozone uptake and its changes due to leaf age in sun and shade leaves of Siebold's beech. *J.*
558 *Agr. Meteorol.* 71: 218-226.

559 Iriti M., Faoro F. (2008). Oxidative stress, the paradigm of ozone toxicity in plants and animals.
560 *Wat. Air Soil Pollut.* 187: 285–301.

561 Isebrands J.G., Richardson J. (2014). *Poplars and willows: trees for society and the environment*.
562 CAB International and Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), Rome.
563 pp. 650. ISBN: 9781780641089, DOI: 10.1079/9781780641089.0000.

564 Japan Meteorological Agency (2016). <http://www.jma.go.jp/jma/indexe.html> Website accessed
565 on 8th January 2016

566 Karp A., Hanley S.J., Trybush S.O., Macalpine W., Pei M., Shield I. (2011). Genetic
567 improvement of willow for bioenergy and biofuels. *J. Integr. Plant Biol.* 53, 151–165.

568 Koike T. (1988). Leaf structure and photosynthetic performance as related to the forest
569 succession of deciduous broad-leaved trees. *Plant Species Biol.* 3: 77-87.

570 Koike T., Watanabe M., Watanabe Y., Agathokleous E., Eguchi N., Takagi K., Satoh F., Kitaoka
571 S., Funada R. (2015). Ecophysiology of deciduous trees native to Northeast Asia grown under
572 FACE (Free Air CO₂ Enrichment). *J. Agr. Meteorol.* 71: 174-184.

573 Kolb T.E., Matyssek R. (2001). Limitations and perspectives about scaling ozone impacts in
574 trees. *Environ. Pollut.* 115: 373-393.

575 Larcher W. (2003). *Physiological plant ecology*. 4 ed. Springer, Berlin, pp. 513.

576 Mahdi J.G. (2010). Medicinal potential of willow: A chemical perspective of aspirin discovery. *J.*
577 *Saudi Chem. Soc.* 14: 317–322.

578 Manning W.J., Paoletti E., Sandermann H.Jr., Ernst D., 2011. Ethylenediurea (EDU): A research
579 tool for assessment and verification. *Environ. Pollut.* 159: 3283–3293.

580 McGrath J.M., Betzelberger A.M., Wang S., Shook E., Zhu X.-G., Long S.P., Ainsworth E.A.
581 (2015). An analysis of ozone damage to historical maize and soybean yields in the United States.
582 *PNAS* 112: 14390-14395.

583 Newsholme C. (1992). *Willows*. B.T. Batsford Ltd, London.

584 Niinemets Ü., Valladares F. (2006). Tolerance to shade, drought, and waterlogging of temperate
585 Northern Hemisphere trees and shrubs. *Ecological Monographs* 76: 521-547.

586 Ohara T., Akimoto H., Kurokawa J., Horii N., Yamaji K., Yan X., Hayasaka T. (2007). An Asian
587 emission inventory of anthropogenic emission sources for the period 1980–2020. *Atmos. Chem.*
588 *Phys.* 7: 4419-4444.

589 Paoletti E., Manning W.J., Spaziani F., Tagliaferro F. (2007), Gravitational infusion of
590 ethylenediurea (EDU) into trunks protected adult European ash trees (*Fraxinus excelsior* L.)
591 from foliar ozone injury. *Environ. Pollut.* 145: 869-873.

592 Paoletti E., Contran N., Manning W.J., Ferrara A.M. (2009). Use of the antiozonant
593 ethylenediurea (EDU) in Italy: Verification of the effects of ambient ozone on crop plants and
594 trees and investigation of EDU's mode of action. *Environ. Pollut.* 157: 1453-1460.

595 Paoletti E., Manning W.J., Ferrara A.M., Tagliaferro F. (2011). Soil drench of ethylenediurea
596 (EDU) protects sensitive trees from ozone injury. *iForest* 4: 66-68.

597 Paoletti E., De Marco A., Beddows D.C.S., Harrison R.M., Manning W (2014). Ozone levels in
598 European and USA cities are increasing more than at rural sites, while peak values are
599 decreasing. *Environ. Pollut.* 192: 295-299.

600 Pellegrini E., Francini A., Lorenzini G., Nali C. (2015). Ecophysiological and antioxidant traits
601 of *Salvia officinalis* under ozone stress. *Environ. Sci. Pol. Res.* 22: 13083-13093.

602 Ruxton G.D., Beauchamp G. (2008). Time for some a priori thinking about post hoc testing.
603 *Behav. Ecol.* 19: 690-693.

604 Saitanis C., Panagopoulos G., Dasopoulou V., Agathokleous E., Papatheohari Y. (2015a).
605 Integrated assessment of ambient ozone phytotoxicity in Tripolis' plateau - Greece. *J. Agr.*
606 *Meteorol.* 71: 55-64.

607 Saitanis, C.J., Lekkas, D.V., Agathokleous, E., Flouri, F. (2015). Screening agrochemicals as
608 potential protectants of plants against ozone phytotoxicity. *Environ. Pollut.* 197: 247-255.

609 Schneider C.A., Rasband W.S., Eliceiri K.W. (2012). NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image
610 analysis. *Nature Meth.* 9, 671-675.

611 Sicard P., De Marco A., Troussier F., Renou C., Vas N., Paoletti E. (2013). Decrease in surface
612 ozone concentrations at Mediterranean remote sites and increase in the cities. *Atmos. Environ.*
613 79: 705-715.

614 Sicard P., Augustaitis A., Belyazid S., Calfapietra C., De Marco A., Fenn M., Bytnerowicz A.,
615 Grulke N., He S., Matyssek R., Serengil Y., Wieser G., Paoletti E. (2016). Global topics and
616 novel approaches in the study of air pollution, climate change and forest ecosystems.
617 *Environmental Pollut.* 213: 977-987.

618 Singh A.A., Singh S., Agrawal M., Agrawal S.B. (2015). Assessment of ethylene diurea-induced
619 protection in plants against ozone phytotoxicity. *Rev. Environ. Contam. T.* 233: 129-184.

620 Tamura S., Kudo G. (2000). Wind pollination and insect pollination of two temperate willow
621 species, *Salix miyabeana* and *Salix sachalinensis*. *Plant Ecol.* 147: 185-192.

622 Ueno N., Kanno H., Seiwa K. (2006). Sexual differences in shoot and leaf dynamics in the
623 dioecious tree *Salix sachalinensis*. *Can. J. Bot.* 84: 1852-1859.

624 Ulrich A.E., Frossard E. (2014). On the history of a reoccurring concept: phosphorus scarcity.
625 *Sci. Total Environ.* 490: 694-707.

626 U.S. EPA (Environmental Protection Agency) (2014). *Welfare risk and exposure assessment for*
627 *ozone – final report*. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and
628 Standards, North Carolina. pp. 472.

629 Van Vuuren D.P., Bouwmann A.F., Beusen A.H.W. (2010). Phosphorus demand for the 1970–
630 2100 period: A scenario analysis of resource depletion. *Glob. Environ. Chang.* 20: 428-439.

631 Vaultier M-N., Jolivet Y. (2015). Ozone sensing and early signaling in plants: An outline from
632 the cloud. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 114: 144-152.

633 Verstraeten W.W., Neu J.L., Williams J.E., Bowman K.W., Worden J.R., Boersma K.F. (2015).
634 Rapid increases in tropospheric ozone production and export from China. *Nature Geosci.* 8: 690-
635 697.

636 Vlachojannis J.E., Cameron M., Chrubasik S. (2009) A systematic review on the effectiveness of
637 willow bark for musculoskeletal pain. *Phytother. Res.* 23: 897-900.

638 Von Uexkull H.R., Mutert E. (1995). Global extent, development and economic impact of acid
639 soils. In: Date RA, Grundon NJ, Raymet GE, Probert ME, (ed) *Plant–Soil Interactions at Low*
640 *pH: Principles and Management.* Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 5–
641 19.

642 Wang X.N., Agathokleous E., Qu L., Watanabe M., Koike T. (2016). Effects of CO₂ and/or O₃
643 on the interaction between root of woody plants and ectomycorrhizae. *J. Agr. Meteorol.* 72: 95-
644 105.

645 Wat, E.K.W., 1975. *Urea Derivatives of 2-imidazolidone.* US Patent Office, Washington, D.C.

646 Watanabe M., Hoshika Y., Inada N., Koike T. (2015). Difference in photosynthetic responses to
647 free air ozone fumigation between upper and lower canopy leaves of Japanese oak (*Quercus*
648 *mongolica* var. *crispula*) saplings. *J. Agr. Meteorol.* 71: 227-231.

649 Wolf F.M. (1986). *Meta-analysis: Quantitative Methods for Research Synthesis.* Beverly Hills,
650 CA: Sage.

651 Xin Y., Yuan X., Shang B., Manning W.J., Yang A., Wang Y., Feng Z. (2016). Moderate
652 drought did not affect the effectiveness of ethylenediurea (EDU) in protecting *Populus*
653 *cathayana* from ambient ozone. *Sc. Total Environ.* 569-570: 1536-1544.

654 Yamaji K., Ohara T., Uno I., Kurokawa J., Pochanart P., Akimoto H. (2008). Future prediction
655 of surface ozone over east Asia using Models-3 Community Multiscale Air Quality Modeling
656 System and Regional Emission Inventory in Asia. *J. Geophys. Res.* 113: D08306.

657 Young P.J., Archibald A.T., Bowman K.W., Lamarque J.F., Naik V., Stevenson D.S., Tilmes S.,
658 Voulgarakis A., Wild O., Bergmann D., Cameron-Smith P., Cionni I., Collins W.J., Dalsoren
659 S.b., Doherty R.M., Eyring V., Faluvegi G., Horowitz L.W., Josse B., Lee H.Y., MacKenzie I.A.,
660 Nagashima T., Plummer D.A., Righi M., Rumbold S.T., Skeie R.B., Shindell D.T., Strode S.A.,
661 Sudo K., Szopa S., Zeng G. (2013). Pre-industrial to end 21st century projections of tropospheric
662 ozone from the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP).
663 *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* 13:2063-2090.

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672 Captions

673 **Table 1** Results of statistical hypotheses testing. Six contrasts (Q1, Q2, Q3a, Q3b, Q4a, Q4b)
674 were applied to answer six out of seven questions regarding comparisons which were defined *a*
675 *priori*. The questions were: Is the mean of *Salix sachalinensis* plants treated with 200 or 400 mg
676 EDU L⁻¹ different from those treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ in ambient ozone (AOZ)? (Q1); Is the
677 mean of elevated ozone (EOZ) plants different from the mean of AOZ plants in the absence of
678 EDU treatment? (Q2); Is the mean of plants treated with 200 ml soil drench of 200 or 400 mg
679 EDU L⁻¹ comparable to those treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ? (Q3a); Is the mean of plants
680 treated with 200 ml soil drench of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ comparable to those treated with 200 mg
681 EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ? (Q3b); Is the mean of plants treated with foliar spray of 200 or 400 mg EDU
682 L⁻¹ comparable to those treated with 0 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ? (Q4a); Is the mean of plants treated
683 with foliar spray of 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ comparable to those treated with 200 mg EDU L⁻¹ in EOZ?
684 (Q4b); Which application method is more appropriate for protecting this fast growing species
685 against O₃ phytotoxicity? (Q5) The last question was not statistically tested due to no protection
686 of EDU soil drench.

687 **Table 2** Monthly and experimental-period means of the main meteorological conditions at
688 Sapporo, Japan, for the months August-October, of the years 2014-2015.

689 **Fig 1** Arithmetic means (\pm s.e.) of leaf-level traits of *Salix sachalinensis* plants treated with 0,
690 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ and exposed to ambient O₃ (A) or elevated O₃ (E) levels. In a growing
691 season EDU was applied as soil drench and in the next growing season, following the same
692 protocol, EDU was applied as foliar spray, to different plants.

693 **Fig 2** Arithmetic means (\pm s.e.) of shoot-level traits of *Salix sachalinensis* plants treated with 0,
694 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ and exposed to ambient O₃ (A) or elevated O₃ (E) levels. In a growing
695 season EDU was applied as soil drench and in the next growing season, following the same
696 protocol, EDU was applied as foliar spray, to different plants.

697 **Fig 3** Arithmetic means (\pm s.e.) of plant-level dimensions and dry masses (DM) of *Salix*
698 *sachalinensis* plants treated with 0, 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ and exposed to ambient O₃ (A) or
699 elevated O₃ (E) levels. In a growing season EDU was applied as soil drench and in the next
700 growing season, following the same protocol, EDU was applied as foliar spray, to different
701 plants.

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

Table 1

| | Q1 | Q2 | Q3a | Q3b | Q4a | Q4b |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| Leaf traits (leaf level) | | | | | | |
| Number of leaves | $t=2.112$, $P=0.074$ | $t=14.418$, $P<0.001$ | $t=14.235$, $P<0.001$ | $t=0.866$, $P=0.420$ | $t=4.092$, $P=0.006$ | $t=1.376$, $P=0.218$ |
| Leaf size | $t=1.707$, $P=0.101$ | $t=6.328$, $P<0.001$ | $t=0.404$, $P=0.700$ | $t=1.100$, $P=0.314$ | $t=3.337$, $P=0.016$ | $t=0.355$, $P=0.735$ |
| Plant leaf area | $t=1.293$, $P=0.208$ | $t=7.059$, $P<0.001$ | $t=2.338$, $P=0.058$ | $t=0.619$, $P=0.559$ | $t=4.339$, $P=0.005$ | $t=0.057$, $P=0.956$ |
| Leaf DM | $t=1.683$, $P=0.105$ | $t=4.444$, $P<0.001$ | $t=0.075$, $P=0.943$ | $t=1.087$, $P=1.319$ | $t=12.367$, $P=0.006$ | $t=0.691$, $P=0.516$ |
| Shoot traits (shoot level) | | | | | | |
| Number of shoots | $t=2.181$, $P=0.039$ | $t=0.402$, $P=0.700$ | $t=0.333$, $P=0.750$ | $t=2.887$, $P=0.028$ | $t=0.007$, $P=0.995$ | $t=0.105$, $P=0.920$ |
| Shoot DM | $t=2.688$, $P=0.013$ | $t=0.882$, $P=0.386$ | $t=0.901$, $P=0.402$ | $t=1.028$, $P=0.344$ | $t=0.727$, $P=0.540$ | $t=1.270$, $P=0.251$ |
| Shoot length | $t=2.015$, $P=0.055$ | $t=0.546$, $P=0.604$ | $t=0.862$, $P=0.422$ | $t=1.072$, $P=0.325$ | $t=0.513$, $P=0.626$ | $t=0.293$, $P=0.779$ |
| Shoot diameter | $t=2.040$, $P=0.071$ | $t=1.902$, $P=0.069$ | $t=0.033$, $P=0.975$ | $t=2.244$, $P=0.066$ | $t=0.489$, $P=0.642$ | $t=0.434$, $P=0.680$ |
| Shoot angle | $t=0.612$, $P=0.546$ | $t=1.064$, $P=0.298$ | $t=0.087$, $P=0.933$ | $t=0.930$, $P=0.388$ | $t=0.245$, $P=0.815$ | $t=1.834$, $P=0.116$ |
| Number of buds | $t=0.792$, $P=0.436$ | $t=0.428$, $P=0.673$ | $t=0.345$, $P=0.742$ | $t=0.679$, $P=0.522$ | $t=0.069$, $P=0.947$ | $t=0.894$, $P=0.406$ |
| Plant traits (plant level) | | | | | | |
| Crown length | $t=1.750$, $P=0.093$ | $t=0.380$, $P=0.707$ | $t=0.468$, $P=0.657$ | $t=1.292$, $P=0.209$ | $t=0.808$, $P=0.450$ | $t=1.175$, $P=0.284$ |
| Crown width | $t=1.395$, $P=0.176$ | $t=5.287$, $P<0.001$ | $t=0.881$, $P=0.412$ | $t=2.895$, $P=0.028$ | $t=2.392$, $P=0.054$ | $t=0.719$, $P=0.499$ |
| Root DM | $t=1.780$, $P=0.123$ | $t=3.060$, $P=0.042$ | $t=0.836$, $P=0.435$ | $t=1.336$, $P=0.230$ | $t=5.180$, $P=0.002$ | $t=1.000$, $P=0.423$ |
| Stem DM | $t=0.867$, $P=0.395$ | $t=1.599$, $P=0.123$ | $t=0.947$, $P=0.380$ | $t=0.615$, $P=0.561$ | $t=0.200$, $P=0.848$ | $t=1.139$, $P=0.298$ |
| Shoots DM | $t=1.331$, $P=0.196$ | $t=3.145$, $P=0.004$ | $t=0.389$, $P=0.711$ | $t=1.189$, $P=0.279$ | $t=1.884$, $P=0.109$ | $t=0.507$, $P=0.630$ |
| Foliage DM | $t=0.897$, $P=0.379$ | $t=7.855$, $P<0.001$ | $t=3.112$, $P=0.021$ | $t=0.810$, $P=0.449$ | $t=3.561$, $P=0.012$ | $t=0.308$, $P=0.768$ |
| Aboveground DM | $t=0.847$, $P=0.406$ | $t=4.442$, $P<0.001$ | $t=1.007$, $P=0.353$ | $t=0.693$, $P=0.514$ | $t=2.169$, $P=0.137$ | $t=0.698$, $P=0.511$ |
| Plant DM | $t=0.462$, $P=0.658$ | $t=5.337$, $P<0.001$ | $t=1.037$, $P=0.340$ | $t=0.685$, $P=0.519$ | $t=3.515$, $P=0.013$ | $t=0.533$, $P=0.613$ |

714 Note: Data were collected from *Salix sachalinensis* plants treated with 0, 200 or 400 mg EDU L⁻¹ and exposed to ambient
715 or elevated O₃ levels (N=144). In a growing season EDU was applied as soil drench and in the next growing season,
716 following the same protocol, EDU was applied as foliar spray.

717

718

719

Table 2

| | 2014 | | | | 2015 | | | |
|--|--------|-----------|---------|-------|--------|-----------|---------|-------|
| | August | September | October | Mean | August | September | October | Mean |
| Daily average air temperature (°C) | 22.4 | 18.1 | 11.3 | 17.3 | 22.4 | 18.4 | 10.8 | 17.2 |
| Daily maximum air temperature (°C) | 26.6 | 22.8 | 15.7 | 21.7 | 26.4 | 22.5 | 15.2 | 21.4 |
| Daily minimum air temperature (°C) | 19.0 | 14.1 | 7.0 | 13.4 | 19.4 | 14.9 | 6.7 | 13.7 |
| Daily wind speed (m s⁻¹) | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 | 3.3 |
| Daily relative humidity (%) | 73 | 68 | 64 | 68.3 | 73 | 71 | 61 | 68.3 |
| Total sunshine duration (h) | 178.9 | 188.8 | 145.4 | 171.0 | 158.6 | 151.8 | 150.9 | 153.8 |
| Total precipitation (mm) | 217.5 | 146.0 | 124 | 162.5 | 131.5 | 198.0 | 98.0 | 142.5 |

